THE MODERATING EFFECT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL ON THE

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND BURNOUT

BY

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis first to God who makes all things possible and to my husband and our children for their support and understanding without which the finality of this work would not be possible.

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ABSTRACT

The survey study investigated the moderating role of psychological capital on the relationship between emotional labour and burnout. Seventy two nurses from the two major hospitals in Chitungwiza participated in the study. They participated on a willing basis. Data was collected using three questionnaires which were all self-administered. Psychological Capital was measured using Luthans etal., (2007)'s Psychological Capital Questionnaire, the PCQ-24 that has 24 items with a 6 item rating scale; Burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory with 22 items and a 7 item rating scale; Emotional Labour was measured using Brotheridge and Lee (1998)'s Emotional Labour Scale that has 14 items and a 5 item rating scale. All scales had robust psychometric properties in terms of internal consistency. Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17. A Pearson correlation matrix of the variables was run via SPSS. In addition a stepwise multiple regression was done on the data using SPSS. Findings show that there is a weak negative correlation relationship regarding psychological capital moderating the relationship between emotional labour and burnout. (($r2=0.445$, $p=0.445>0.05$).

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Statement of the problem

Emotional labour is an accepted aspect of the professional role of those in the nursing profession. Hochschild (1983) coined the term emotional labour, to refer to "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (p.7).

However research has provided evidence that certain emotional labour strategies that are adopted such as deep acting may contribute to the development of burnout. Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, (2001) defined the burnout concept as " the alienation of the person to the original meaning and the purpose of his/her job and being truly not able to attend the people whom s/he delivers service to". Burnout has detrimental effects to an individual's health and affects performance and which can ultimately translate to financial cost to the company through absenteeism, off sick days, high staff turnover, errors at work, compromised customer relationship management. Psychological capital (PsyCap) is a relatively new construct that has its roots in positive psychology. Sridevi & Srinivasan (2012) cite Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007) summary of PsyCap refers to an individual's positive psychological state of development characterised by hope, optimism, resiliency and self-efficacy (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007. There is a growing body of research that indicates that PsyCap positively affects a range of workplace attributes such as job performance (Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman, 2007; Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa & Li, 2005); stress (e.g Avey etal., 2009) and well-being (Culberson, Fullagar and Mills, 2010).

1.3 Study's significance

According to Gorgens-Ekermans & Herbert (2013), research has shown that PsyCap to consistently correlate negatively with burnout (Cheung, Tang & Tang, 2011; Laschinger & Grau, 2012; Wang, Chang, Fu &Wang, 2012). Moreover PsyCap has

been shown to be a moderator in the emotional labour-burnout relationship (Cheung etal., 2011).

Cheung etal (2001) study focussed on teachers in Asia and included job satisfaction. The study examined whether psychological capital (PsyCap) moderated the emotional labor-burnout or job satisfaction associations. This study focussed on nurses in Harare and excluded job satisfaction among the variables under study.

Given the potential the construct holds to positively affect workplace outcomes, the results of this study will serve to advance theoretical understanding as to how psychological capital positively affects workplace attributes such as emotional management which is a key issue in the nursing profession.

1.4 Research question

To what extent does PsyCap moderate the relationship between EL and Burnout?

1.5 Research objectives and model

The main objective of the study is to determine if PsyCap is a moderator in the emotional labour - burnout relationship.

The second objective of the study is to determine which strategy of emotional labour (deep acting vs surface acting) as measured by the Brotheridge and Lee Emotional Labour Scale contributed the most to the development of burnout.

1.6 Hypotheses

Figure 1: Hypothesized model of psychological capital moderating effect on emotional labour and burnout
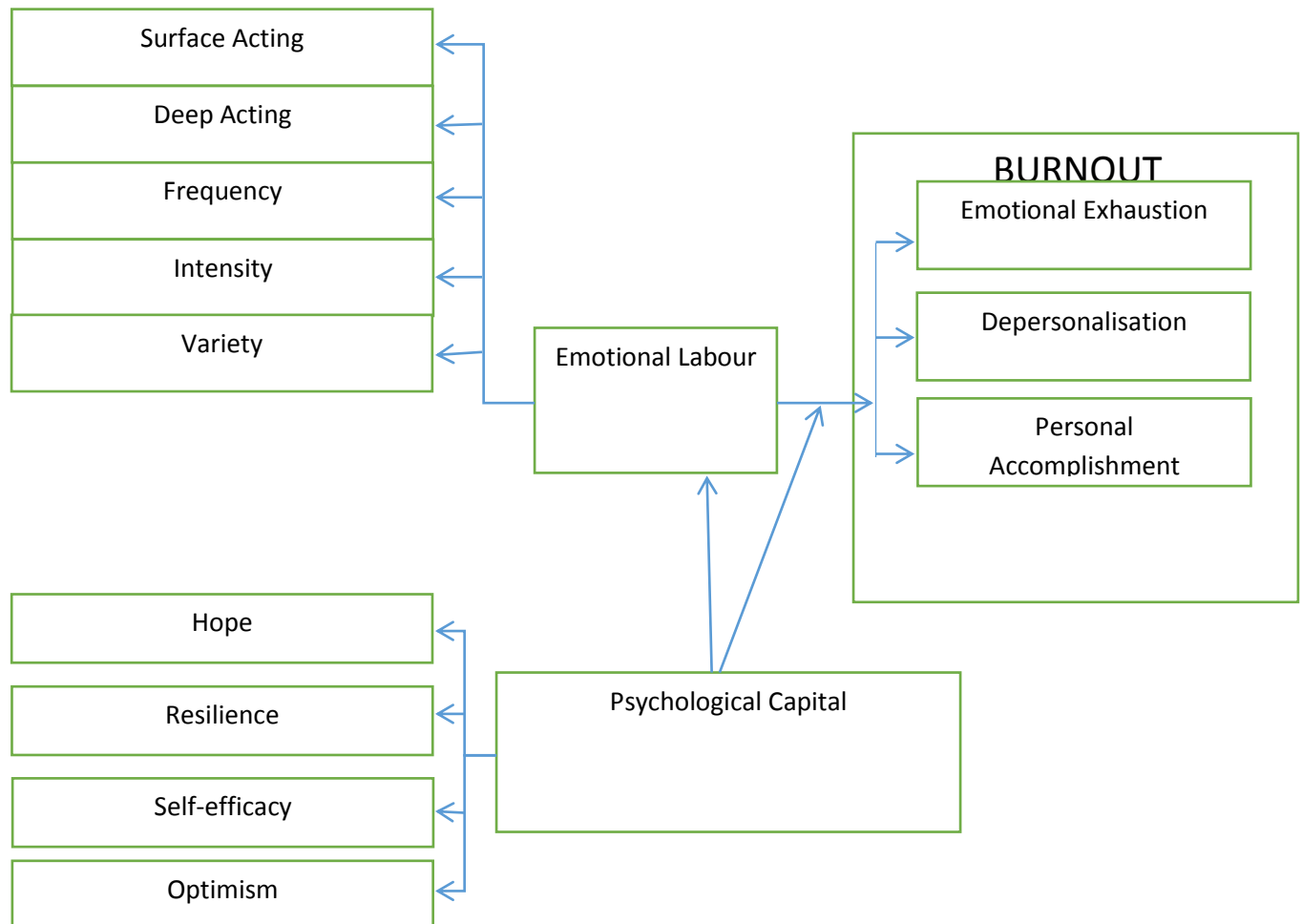
1.7 Theoretical Framework

There is a positive relationship between Emotional Labour and Burnout which has an adverse effect on both the employees and the organisations they work for. However PsyCap because of its positive traits such as hope, self-efficacy, confidence and resilience; presents a buffer to the adverse effects of burnout. It is therefore hypothesized that nurses who have high scores in PsyCap will experience low levels of burnout.

1.8   Hypotheses

H1: A significant positive relationship will exist between Emotional Labour and Burnout

H2: PsyCap will moderate the relationship between EL and burnout such that those nurses high in PsyCap will experience less burnout.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a review of literature relevant to Burnout, Emotional Labour, and Psychological Capital; and the relationship between them. The discussion incorporates relevant literature and current research related to the burnout, emotional labour, and Psychological Capital constructs.

2.1.1. JOB BURNOUT
Definition of Job Burnout

The issue of burnout was first identified by Bradley (1969) and was further elaborated upon by Freudenberger (1974). However concerted efforts to conceptualize and examine burnout were made during the mid-seventies (Freudenberger, 1974,1975), when employees in free health clinics in the United States were identified as having a syndrome-like cluster of symptoms thought to be a result of multiple sources of long-term stress. Freudenberger, viewed burnout as a mental disorder which according to his theory or viewpoint, is mainly a result of personal characteristics such as intra-personal conflicts, dysfunctional personality traits and ineffective coping mechanisms (Schaufeli, 2003). Freudenberger used the burnout syndrome to describe a specific type of occupational exhaustion that was observed in human services professions such as police officers, school teachers, medical care workers and social workers. He , symptoms were listed as the decrease in the interest to the job (Tumkaya, cam and Cavusoglu, 2009).

A second approach to the burnout construct was put forward by Christina Maslach who employed a scientific approach and regarded the root-causes of burnout to be related to interpersonal, social and organisational factors (Maslach, etal, 2001). Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, (2001) defined the burnout concept as " the alienation of the person to the original meaning and the purpose of his/her job and being truly not able to attend to the people whom s/he delivers service to". Maslach etal, have done significant studies and developed a scale on the issue of burnout, (Ozturk, Tolga, Senol and Gunay, 2008). Burnout is also seen to be addressed as chronic fatigue, desperacy, feeling hopelessness, physical, emotional and mental exhaustion reflected

in the form of negative attitudes towards job and life. (Maslach, 1978; Maslach and Pines, 1979; Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Maslach, 1982).

Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) defined burnout as a three-dimensional concept. Emotional exhaustion dimension refers to the stress-related exhaustion of the emotional and physical power of the individual; depersonalization dimension refers to developing negative and rigid attitudes and behaviours against the people in the interaction; personal accomplishment dimension refers to falling into the emotions of failure and incompetence in the jobs and in the interactions with the people.

However, burnout must be distinguished from occupational stress, as it is considered to be a chronic type of stress at work that exceeds the limits of the person's ability to cope with stressors and as a result, lead to burnout (Schaufeli, 2003).

Cooper etal., (2001) define burnout as an extreme case of chronic stress. Chronic stress is mostly caused by constant emotional pressure which the individual cannot control. Burnout is considered to be a condition that occurs over time and is characterised by Emotional Exhaustion and negative attitudes that include boredom, discontent, cynicism, inadequacy and failure. It usually occurs when a person experiences physical, psychological and/ or spiritual fatigue and can no longer cope (Crampton, Hodge, Mishra & Prices, 1995). Freudenberger (1980) describes burnout in terms of chronic fatigue, depression and frustration that results from situations where an individual's ambition or expected rewards are not realised. However Burke & Richardson criticise this definition by pointing out that it confounds the construct with other phenomena which are normally different from burnout for example depression and chronic fatigue. Cordes & Dougherty, (1993) describe burnout as a specific type of stress which is commonly experienced by professionals employed in occupations which require a great deal of interpersonal contact; whilst Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) have defined the construct as, "….a persistent, negative, work-related state of mind in 'normal' individuals that is primarily characterised by exhaustion, which is accompanied by distress, a sense of reduced effectiveness, decreased motivation and the development of dysfunctional attitudes and behaviours at work.." Other researchers have defined burnout as an exhaustion of physical and mental resources (Freudenberger, 1980; Lamb, 1979), spiritual collapse (Storlie, 1979), and loss of positive energy, flexibility and resourcefulness (Seiderman, 1978).

Maslach and Jackson (1981) defined burnout as a syndrome consisting of three components: Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and a Reduced sense of Personal Accomplishment. Emotional Exhaustion is characterised as a depletion of emotional energy and a feeling that one's emotional resources are inadequate to deal with the situation at hand. Depersonalisation refers to the treatment of other individuals in the work setting (clients, patients or even co-workers) as objects rather than people. Lastly, a diminished feeling of personal accomplishment refers to a tendency to evaluate one's own behaviour and performance in a negative way, resulting in a feeling of incompetence on the job and inability to achieve performance goals (Cooper etal., 2001). Due to the popularity of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) as a psychometric measure of the construct, the concept of burnout has mostly been associated with the Maslach definition of burnout (Schaufeli, 2003).

Recently, Pines and Keinen (2005) questioned the suitability of the recurrence with which burnout is defined within the framework of stress research. They argue that the problem with defining burnout within the stress framework is that, as with the burnout construct, ambiguity exists regarding a clear definition of stress. Pines and Keinen (2005) suggested that even though both burnout and strain are seen as adverse responses to stressors, they seem to have different antecedents, correlates and consequences. They report that job stressors correlated higher with strain ($r=.65$, $p< .001$, $n= 1182$) than with burnout ($r = .54$, $p< .001$, $n = 1182$) and that job importance had a higher correlation with burnout ($r= .15$, $p < .01$) than with strain ($r = .07$, $p < .05$, $n = 1182$). Their study suggests that interventions in burnout and stress should differ, where interventions for burnout should aim to focus on enhancing people's sense of importance and significance rather than reducing job stress. Pines (1993), Yiu-kee and Tang (1995) support this view and argue that burnout originates from employee's need to believe that their lives are meaningful and adding value and hence the use of such interventions should produce significant results in combating the condition.

Schaufeli (2003) argues that emotional and (cognitive) exhaustion and depersonalisation (mental distancing or cynicism) could be viewed as the core components of burnout and that this view is similar to Meijman and Schaueli's (1996)

description of the construct of occupational fatigue. Schaufeli (2003) continues to explain that the concept of Emotional Exhaustion refers to the fact that an employee can no longer perform what is required, due to the fact that all physical and mental energy has been drained. Mental distancing, or depersonalization, is the psychological withdrawal from the task, which according to him, should be viewed as a coping mechanism to deal with the excessive demand of work and the consequential feelings of exhaustion.

It is clear from this discussion that a significant amount of difference exists regarding a standardised definition of burnout. However most researchers who study this construct acknowledge that it includes both cognitive and emotional dimensions of burnout pointing towards the importance of acknowledging the emotive component of the construct. This insight raises the question of whether EI could have a possible moderating effect on the development of burnout when the individual is experiencing high levels of stress (Brand, 2007).

Furthermore, it is also generally agreed that it involves an internal process, of a psychological nature involving aspects such as attitudes, feelings, motives and expectations which is experienced as negative due to the consequential feelings of distress, discomfort and dysfunction.

CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF BURNOUT

Sullivan (1989) differentiated between job dimensions (skills variety, task significance, autonomy, feedback and role overload), organisational dimensions (role clarity, leadership and efficiency) as well as interpersonal dimensions and social support (co-workers and supervisors) as causes of burnout. Hare et al., (1988) similarly argue that burnout can be the result of both organisational and personal factors.

Critics often point out that the argument, that excessive pressure will result in burnout is oversimplified. It is possible that employees exposed to the same environment and circumstances as their colleagues might not necessarily develop burnout. It is therefore possible that burnout is not merely the result of excessive direct occupational related pressure or workload (stress), but that it could be affected by other non-work pressures such as relationships, ineffective social support or maladaptive coping strategies (Muldary, 1983; Cox, 1993). It might be logical to assume that an individual's level of EI and other individual differences in

characteristics (such as coping mechanisms, personality, personal circumstances), might impact on the development of burnout and consequently moderate the level and frequency of burnout experienced.

Schaufeli (2003) observed that even though many studies have reported variables that are related to burnout, little is known about what causes it. For example in the eight longitudinal studies analysed by Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) a causal relationship between job demands and burnout could not be established. Shaufeli (2003) attributes the lack of empirical evidence to methodological constraints relating to, amongst other factors, the stability of the burnout construct over time. After reviewing 250 cross-sectional studies on burnout, no causal relationships could be found between job burnout and other variables. Possible causes or correlates of burnout have been identified as biographical characteristics such as age (negative), work experience (negative) and level of education (positive); personality characteristics such as hardiness (negative), external control orientation (positive), confront coping style (negative), self-esteem (negative), Type A behaviour (positive), neuroticism (positive), extroversion (negative); work related attitudes such as high or unrealistic expectations (positive), and work and organisational characteristics such as workload (positive), direct client contact (positive), social support from colleagues or superiors (negative) and lack of feedback (positive) (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

Cross-sectional studies show that burnout is related to ill-health indicators such as depression, psychosomatic complaints, distress and physical health problems (Schaufeli, 2003). According to Schaufeli (2003) it is debatable whether these ill-health symptoms are consequences of concomitants of burnout. In a study by McKnight and Glass (1995) they did not manage to provide a clear answer to the question of whether depression is a cause or consequence of burnout instead they proposed that depression can be both a cause and a consequence of burnout. McManus, Winder and Gordon, (2002) also reported a similar finding regarding burnout and distress. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) classified possible consequences of burnout into three categories:

a) Individual level (depression, psychosomatic complaints, health problems, substance abuse and spill over to private life)

b) Work orientation and attitudes level (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to quit)

c) Organisational level (absenteeism and sick leave, job turnover, performance and quality of service).

Research findings have linked burnout in nurses to several specific work environment factors. The most common sources of stress found to be inherent to the nursing role includes factors such as high work load, poor collegial support, role conflict and role ambiguity (Levert, Lucas &Ortlepp, 2000). Levert et al. (2000) in their study on psychiatric nurses according to Maslach's three dimensions, found that more than half of the nursing staff experienced high levels of Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation, whereas 93.4% of the sample reported little sense of personal accomplishment.

It has also been claimed that burnout has a far reaching impact on organisations (Angerer, 2003; Schaufeli, 2003). Increased absenteeism, job turnover, poor performance and loss of productivity and inefficiency, all eventually result in financial losses for organisations. When individuals affected by burnout take leave, organisations are required to pay for the sick leave, but also needs to incur costs to fund replacement labour. Furthermore, when employees decide to leave the organisation (turnover), the replacement cost and training as well as the loss of immediate productivity, results in an additional cost for the employer. However, research evidence suggests that some of the possible causes of burnout relate to objective work characteristics (Rupert & Morgan, 2005; Simonis & Paterson, 1997); Taylor & Baring, 2004). These aspects could potentially be adapted or eliminated by organisations.

MODELS OF BURNOUT

Four development models will be discussed, which ultimately builds up to the three-level model of Maslach & Jackson (Cooper et al., 2001). Schaufeli and Buunk (2002) suggest that the complexity of the phenomenon makes it highly unlikely that a single universal theory of burnout would be developed and agreed upon.

Process Model of Burnout: Cherniss (1980)

Cherniss (1980) suggested a process model of burnout where aspects of the work environment and the characteristics of the individual are both viewed as sources of strain. According to Cooper et al., (2001) individuals choose to deal with these aspects in different ways, which could include negative attitudes towards the situation for example reducing work load, taking less responsibility for work outcomes, or becoming detached from work. These negative attitudes form the basis of Cherniss's definition of burnout. The "over inclusiveness" of this theory, in that burnout is linked to negative attitudes, has been cited as a possible limitation, in that negative attitudes incorporates a wide range of variables under the concept of burnout. Cooper et al., (2001) therefore argue that this model is possibly too broad and does not allow for differentiation between burnout and job strain.

Multi-dimensional model of job burnout: Maslach (1986)

The development of the Maslach burnout model (Maslach & Jackson, 1986), started through extensive interviews with individuals employed in human service occupations. The aim was to go beyond traditional research and literature on job stress, by extending the scope beyond the experience of stress (exhaustion), to include a person's response to the job (cynicism/depersonalisation) and the response in the person self (feelings of inefficacy/personal accomplishment) (Maslach, 2003). The dimension of exhaustion embodies the basic stress response, as referred to in other stress-related research, which shows positive correlations with aspects such as role overload and stress related health problems. The depersonalisation dimension refers to the detached, negative feelings felt towards aspects of the job and other people, as a response to the stress experienced. This dimension is not commonly found in other stress models and according to Maslach (2003) represents the key feature of the burnout phenomenon. The way in which the third dimension, feelings of efficacy or a 'lack of personal accomplishment' relates to the other two dimensions in the model, is dependent on the situation and can either be viewed as a consequence of exhaustion or cynicism or in some cases these feelings seem to develop sequentially. Maslach (2003) further explicates the construct by arguing that the way in which the three dimensions of burnout relate to the various workplace variables within the organisational setting (for example lack of resources and information, working relationship, insufficient time, heavy work demands) differ. Research seems to

suggest that exhaustion and cynicism mostly manifests as a result of work overload and interpersonal conflict, whereas a sense of inefficacy most likely results from a lack of resources or support (Maslach, 2003). Consequently, the variation in the manifestation of these dimensions will result in different patterns of burnout. The majority of research on burnout focuses on situational variables as possible causes for burnout, such as work load and demands, role overload, lack of support from colleagues and many studies have confirmed the impact of various job characteristics on burnout (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Maslach, et al. (2001) recently attempted to provide a theoretical framework for burnout and stress research, by analysing the former in terms of six key fields, namely; work overload, lack of control, insufficient reward, breakdown of community, absence of fairness and conflicting values (Angerer, 2003). This framework is presented as a person-job fit framework where emphasis is placed on the compatibility between the six domains of the job environment and the employee.

Phase Model: Golembiewski (1984)

Golembiewski and Munzenrider (1984, 1988) developed a model similar to Maslach but proposed that the second component depersonalisation should be the first phase in the model. It is argued that depersonalisation constitutes the manifestation of burnout and consequently impairs performance. As a result, the individual's sense of personal accomplishment is then reduced which therefore constitutes the second phase in Golembiewski's model. Golembiewski further argued that Depersonalisation and Lack of Personal Accomplishment will exceed the individual's coping ability and then result in Emotional Exhaustion. Emotional Exhaustion would then represent the most powerful stage in the development of burnout (Cooper et al., 2001). Golembiewski's phase model constitutes eight phases of burnout. Individuals are rated from low to high on each of the three dimensions of burnout and then assigned to one of the eight phases (Brand, 2007). The phase model inherently suggests that burnout becomes more evident as the individual moves through Depersonalisation to reduced sense of Personal Accomplishment to Emotional Exhaustion. Therefore, the development of Emotional Exhaustion is strongly related to the progression of burnout. Hence individuals in the more advanced phases will experience more severe symptoms and consequences than those in the earlier phases (Brand, 2007). Even though the model constitutes of various developmental phases, Golembiewski, Scherb

and Bourdreau (1993) note that it is not expected that each individual will progress through all eight phases. This model has been criticised in terms of the consistency of the developmental process (Cooper et al., 2001) and the centricity of Emotional Exhaustion (Leiter, 1993). Burke (1989) questioned the necessity of the eight phases and proposed that a three or a four phase model would probably be more effective in resolving the question of the progressive nature of burnout (Brand, 2007).

Conservation of Resources Theory: Hobfoll (1989)

Hobfoll's theory covers a general perspective of stress with relevance to burnout in organisations (Cooper et al., 2001). According to Brand (2007), the conservation of resources theory (COR theory) suggests that individuals have access to four main categories of resources: **objects**(e.g. houses, cars and furniture), **conditions** (e.g. relationships, steady jobs), **personal characteristics** (e.g. self-esteem) and **forms of energy** (money, favours). It is argued that the potential loss of these resources, the loss of resources or failure to regain resources following resources investment, threaten individuals and subsequently result in stress. The theory further proposes that burnout can develop, when resources are lost or when resources are inadequate to meet the burden the individual faces. Burnout will result where a continuous loss of resources is evident and not as a result of a single event (Cooper et al., 2001). According to Cooper et al. (2001) the theory is well-matched to the transactional model of stress developed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984).

Measuring Burnout

The two most prominent questionnaires used in research to measure burnout are the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; 1986; Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996) and the Burnout Measure (BM; Pines, Aronson & Kafry, 1981).

Burnout Inventory: Maslach (1981)

The most widely used instrument to measure burnout in recent years is the Maslach Burnout Inventory, which was initially developed to assess levels of burnout among human service professionals (Brand, 2007). This instrument was later adopted for use in a broader spectrum of occupations. The MBI consists of three scales: Emotional Exhaustion, Personal Accomplishment and Depersonalisation. The construct's, convergent and discriminant validity have been supported by exploratory factor analysis of the three scales (Burke & Richardsen, 1993; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). However, Walkey and Green (1992) detected that Emotional Exhaustion and

Depersonalisation might collapse into a single factor. Confirmatory factor analysis raised questions regarding the factor structure of the MBI and more specifically the reliable of certain items (Brand, 2007). In a study by Evans and Fischer (1993) on a sample of teachers, three clear factors were found; however in a similar study on computer company employees, Depersonalisation did not form a meaningful factor. Similarly, in studies by Byrne (1991) and Yadama and Drake (1995) no support was found for the three factor model of the MBI could be found (Brand, 2007). They explored possible re-specifications of the model which resulted in some items being removed. Overall, Emotional Exhaustion seems the strongest of the MBI factors (Cooper etal., 2001). The MBI is available in three versions, (1) The Human Services Survey (HSS), (2) The Educators Survey (ES) and (3) the General Survey (GS). The MBI-HSS and the MBI-ES both contain the three scales and are virtually identical except that the word recipient is replaced by student (Brand, 2007). The MBI-GS is suitable for more generic occupations and include the following subscales: Emotional Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy. The MBI-HSS will be used for this study.

Burnout Measure: Pines and Aronson (1988)

The Burnout Measure (BM) is used in approximately 5% of all studies on burnout (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Brand, 2007). Pines and Aronson (1988, p.9) defined burnout as, "… the state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion caused by long-term involvement in emotionally demanding situations…", however in the development of the BM, Pines and Aronson (1988) moved towards a more empirical definition, where burnout was described as a sequence of symptoms that consisted of overall feelings of hopelessness and helplessness characterised by a lack of enthusiasm, irritability and a lowered self-esteem (Brand, 2007). Even though burnout is defined by Pines and Aronson (1988) as a three-dimensional model, the instrument consists of a one-dimensional questionnaire which results in a single composite burnout score (Brand, 2007). The discriminant validity of the BM in relation to depression, anxiety and self-esteem, has been questioned (Shirom & Ezrachi, 2003) and this has caused the BM as a general index of psychological distress which includes physical fatigue, emotional exhaustion, depression, anxiety and reduced self-esteem (Brand, 2007). The overlap between the items used to determine burnout by the BM and depression or anxiety is substantial and it would therefore be irrelevant to

determine the relationship between burnout and these indicators of mental health (Shirom & Ezrachi, 2003; Brand, 2007). The BM is a self-report measure. Items are rated on a 7-point frequency scale and assess the person's level of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion (Brand, 2007).

EMOTIONAL LABOUR

Along with the interest emotional labour has generated, numerous theoretical approaches and perspectives have been promoted. Glomb and Tews (2004), while arguing that these approaches represent complementary perspectives; concede "It could appear that the emotional labour domain is in a theoretical quandary, flooded with a multitude of conceptualizations" (p4).

Hochschild's Dramaturgical Approach

The concept of emotional labour was first introduced by Hochschild in her seminal book, The Managed Heart. In this work, Hochschild (1983) coined the term emotional labour, to refer to "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (p.7).

Hochschild's (1983) work was influenced by the dramaturgical perspective of customer interactions in which employees are regarded as actors, and the work setting was viewed as their stage (Grove & Fisk, 1989), and thus, she used the concepts of surface acting and deep acting to describe how employees perform emotional labour. Surface acting occurs when a person changes only his or her outward appearances and does not actually feel the displayed emotions, while deep acting takes place when a person intentionally feels the emotions they are required to display (Hochschild, 1983; Kruml & Geddes, 2000).

Hochschild (1983) thought that emotional labour is especially required for service workers who have direct interactions with customers and identified 44 occupations that involve a significant amount of emotional labour. Examples of these occupations are lawyers, judges, librarians and bank tellers (Hochschild, 1983).

Hochschild's (1983) investigation was largely centred on flight attendants and the ways in which they complied with organisational expectations of how they should manage and express desirable emotions in their dealing with passengers (Brown, 2010). For example flight attendants are expected to display friendliness by smiling, and allay passenger fears of flying by presenting a calm demeanour (Brown, 2010). These emotional expressions are expected even in the face of demanding or abusive

clients. Importantly, Hochschild saw that emotional labour included the requirement to suppress unacceptable or non-prescribed emotions, often while simultaneously expressing the required expression, entailing a complex degree of emotional management (see figure 2 for a model based on her theory).

Hochschild's Dramaturgical Perspective of Emotional Labour

Feeling Rules	Emotional Labour	Outcomes
Organisationally determined	Surface Acting Deep Acting	Emotional exhaustion Disassociation from true self
For profit		
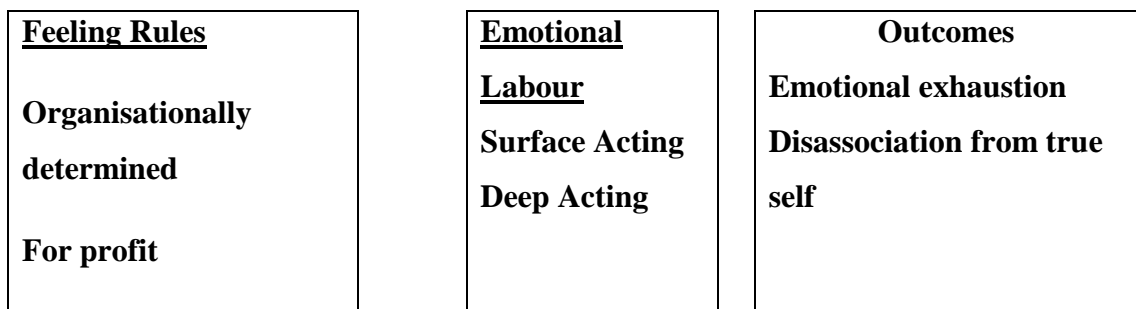
Figure 2. Model based on Hochschild's (1983) emotional labour theory (Brown, 2010).

For example, a nurse may prepare for work in a children's ward by ensuring that he or she is in a happy and friendly mood. Hochschild (1983) found that over time, the performance of emotional labour had serious adverse wellbeing outcomes for employees (Brown, 2010). As an explanation for such negative wellbeing consequences, Hochschild introduced the notion of emotive dissonance, similar to cognitive dissonance, as an uncomfortable internal state, resulting from the tension created from the difference between felt and expressed emotion (Brown, 2010). Emotive dissonance has since been defined as "the expression of emotions that are not felt" (Zapf & Holz, 2006, p1).

Hochschild's (1983) perspective presents emotional labour very much as an employer driven and directed process in which employees, despite sometimes 'rebelling' against the expected expression, are generally at the behest of the organisation and have little choice but to express sanctioned emotions, regardless of what they are feeling (Brown, 2010).

Hochschild's (1979, 1983) view of emotional labour as a means by which employers increase profit at the expense of an employee's wellbeing has not gone unchallenged in other theoretical perspectives (for example Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Wouters, 1989). However Hochschild's original conceptualisation can be seen as a robust basis

for emotional labour researchers to work from. In particular, the importance of the central tenets of surface and deep acting and emotive dissonance have endured and been supported in both qualitative (e.g Boyle, 2005; Mann, 2004) and quantitative studies (e.g Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Martinez-Inigo, Totterdell, Alcover, & Holman, 2007; Naring, Briet & Brouwers, 2006) (Brown, 2010).

Ashforth and Humphrey's Behavioural Approach

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) define emotional labour as "the act of displaying the appropriate emotion" (p.90) and argue that observable behaviour is what is seen by clients while internal states are difficult to assess and conformity may not require altering of felt emotion (Brown, 2010).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) argue that emotional labour can have positive wellbeing outcomes unalike Hochschild's (1983) bleak assessment of the effects of emotional labour (Brown, 2010). This is most likely the case when the employee identifies with the role and has some latitude for expression views surface and deep acting as core elements of emotional labour. In addition, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) suggested that spontaneous and genuine emotion (emotion that naturally corresponds with display rules), should be considered as a separate, third emotional labour component (Brown, 2010). Ashforth and Humphrey provide an example of a nurse who is naturally sympathetic towards sick children, which will lead to exactly the type of empathic emotional displays required as part of the role. This means that the nurse has not had to work to elicit a particular emotion to conform to display rules as is the case with deep acting.

Using social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1985), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) argued that when employees can more readily identify with the service role, compliance with the emotional requirements may be easy and enjoyable (Brown, 2010). In this respect Ashforth and Humphrey saw the outcomes of emotional labour as either positive or negative depending on how well the employee is able to align their identity with their role and conform to display rules (Brown 2010). Whereas Hochschild saw the organisation as the primary and over-riding formulator of display rules, Ashforth and Humphrey argued that social and occupational norms for appropriate emotional expression also applied (Brown, 2010). For example, while there may be a socially derived expectation that doctors show

concern to patients (Mann, 1997), nursing, as the caring profession, carries with it a stronger expectation of nurturing as a central aspect of the role (Smith, 1992), which would be necessarily entail a greater expression of emotion (Brown, 2010). Furthermore, these socially and professionally derived expectations would apply across organisations.

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) also argued that positive wellbeing outcomes may result from emotional labour if the employee is allowed some latitude for self-expression (greater emotional autonomy) as opposed to a tight control on emotional expression in order to conform to exacting requirements. Emotional autonomy is thought to allow for a closer connection with clients in individual interactions, leading to greater job satisfaction and hence, more positive wellbeing outcomes (see model based on Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) emotional labour conceptualisation). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) also expanded Hochschild's (1983) notion of emotive dissonance considerably, arguing that dissonance represents the key problem for employees engaged in emotional labour (Brown, 2010). Ashforth and Humphrey saw that the uncomfortable and inauthentic self-reflection that dissonance creates can lead to reduced self-esteem, depression, cynicism and alienation. Therefore, surface acting, with its masking of true emotion and expression of unfelt emotion, is seen as a particular problem. While Ashforth and Humphrey considered deep acting as less problematic than surface acting, they argued deep acting may also lead to feelings of inauthenticity and self-alienation, especially if the emotional labour requirements are unrelenting, resulting in substantial effort (Brown, 2010). Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) view of emotional labour as work that is not necessarily associated with poor outcomes for individuals represents a departure from Hochschild's (1983) views (Brown, 2010). In addition, the consideration of display rules as being influenced from sources other than the organisation, and the separation of natural emotion as a distinct emotional labour strategy from deep acting, are further developments (Brown, 2010). Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) focus on observable expression sees task effectiveness as the whole purpose for the management of emotion. Therefore, expression that is appropriate and leads to a smooth interaction is assumed to be associated with better performance, greater self-efficacy, and easier and more enjoyable interactions.

Figure 3: Ashforth and Humphrey's Emotional Labour Theory

Display Rules Influences	Emotional Labour	Wellbeing Outcomes
Organisational	Surface Acting	Task Effectiveness
Societal	Deep acting	Alienation
Occupational	Genuine emotion	Self-Esteem

Moderators

Social and personal identity

Emotional autonomy
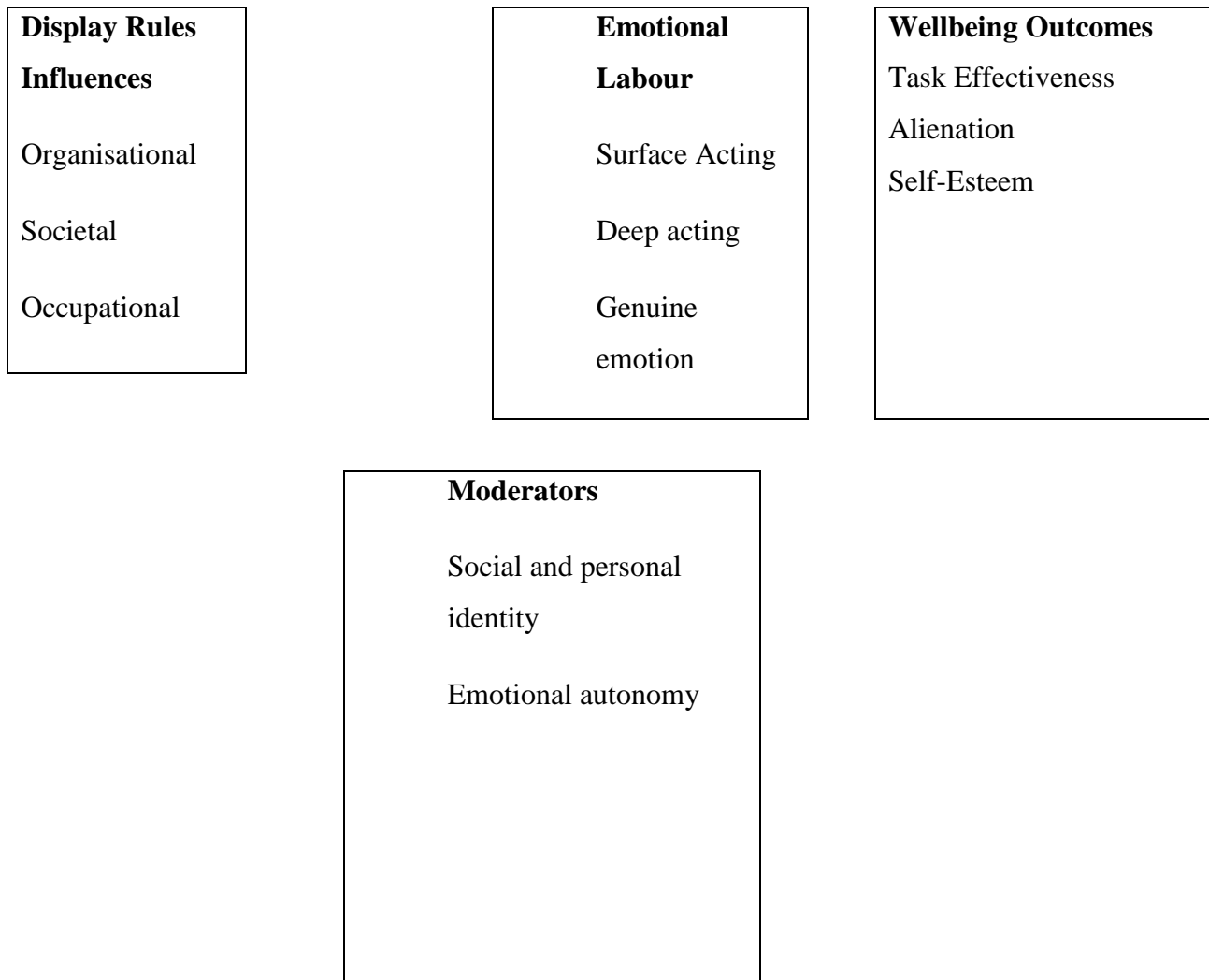
Figure 3: Model based on Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) theory of emotional labour (Brown, 2010).

Morris and Feldman's Interactive Approach

Morris and Feldman (1996) define emotional labour as "the effort, planning and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions" (p.987) (Brown, 2010). Morris and Feldman's (1996) view of emotional labour is centred on the idea that the social environment is crucial in determining how individuals make sense of and express emotion (Brown, 1996). Morris and Feldman (1997) describe the emotional labour construct as consisting of three components: the frequency of interactions, duration of interactions and emotional dissonance. The exclusion of surface acting and deep acting as central emotional labour components indicates a significant departure from Hochschild (1993) and Ashforth &

Humphrey (1993) (Brown, 2010). However, Morris and Feldman (1996) propose that all components will be negatively associated with job satisfaction. In terms of outcomes, this position is closely related to Hochschild's (1983) proposition that emotional labour will mostly lead to negative outcomes (see Figure 3).

Figure 4: Antecedents and Consequences of Emotional Labour

Emotional Labour

Frequency of Interaction

Duration of Interaction

Emotional Dissonance

Antecedents

Explicitness of display rules

Routineness of Task

Job Autonomy

Power of Role Receiver

Consequences

Emotional Exhaustion

Job Satisfaction

Role Internalisation

Figure 4: Antecedents and Consequences of Emotional Labour (Source: Managing emotions in the workplace. By J.A Morris and D.C Feldman (1997). Journal of Managerial Issues, 9, p260.

In a test of their model, Morris and Feldman (1997) focussed on four important antecedent factors: explicitness of display rules, task routines, job autonomy, and power of role receiver (Brown, 2010). The most notable finding was that emotional dissonance was the emotional labour comp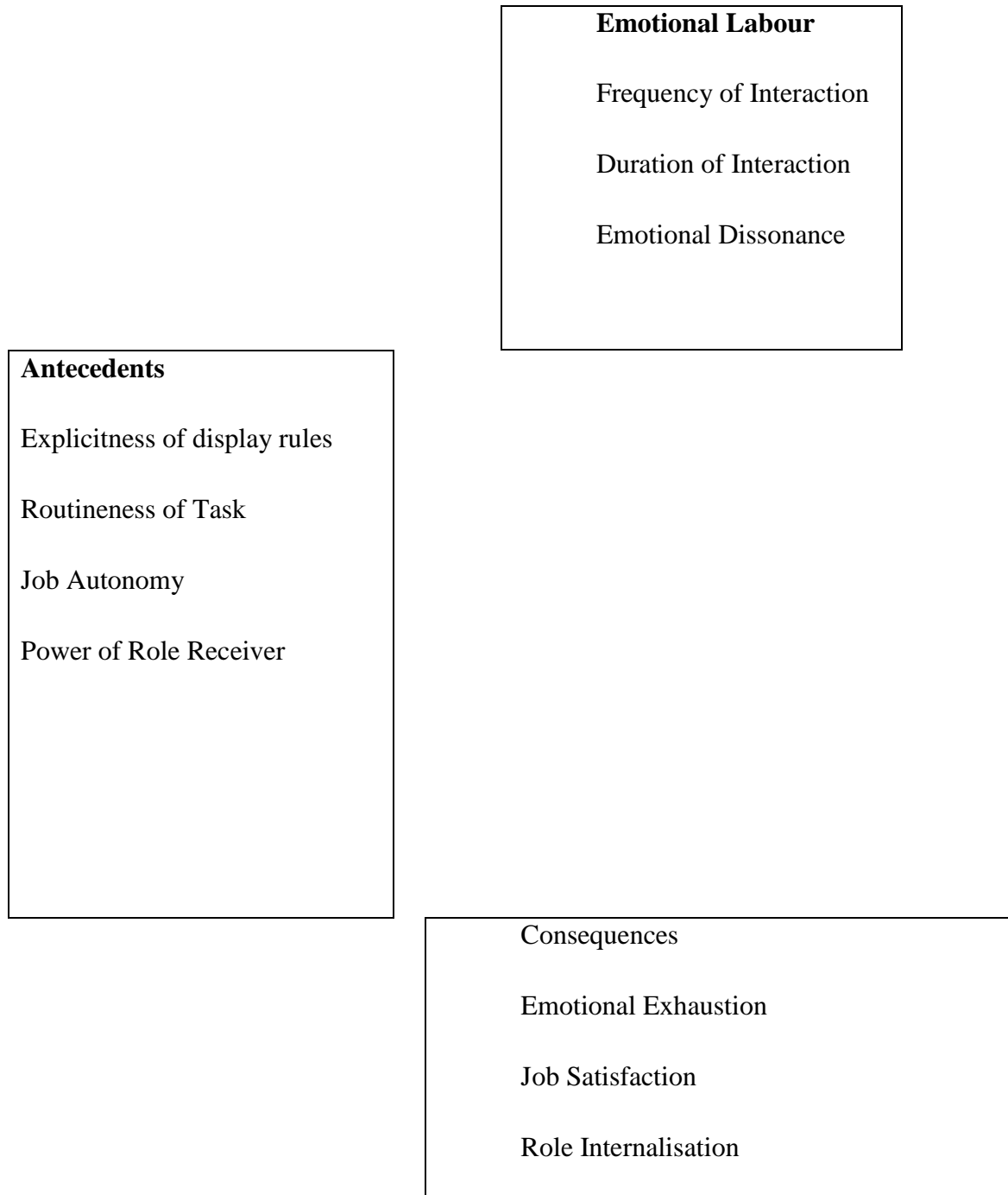onent that led to poor outcomes in terms of both emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction leading Morris and Feldman (1997) to reassess their position that emotional labour should produce generally poor personal consequences (Brown, 2010). The three suggested components of emotional labour as proposed by Morris and Feldman (1997) have been criticised by Grandey (2000) and Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) as being unrepresentative of how employees actually express and inhibit emotion (Brown, 2010). Whereas surface and deep acting could be thought of as methods of actually performing emotional labour, Morris and Feldman's focus on frequency and duration, while possibly very important in determining how emotional labour might be conducted, does not define emotional labour (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; Grandey, 2000). Furthermore, while it is argued by some (e.g Rubin, Staebler-Tardino, Daus &Munz, 2005) that emotional dissonance is a necessary precursor to emotional labour being conducted, it is more of an internal state, rather than the actual effort of expressing or managing emotion (Grandey, 2000; Brown, 2010).

Antecedent and Response Focused Emotional Regulation Approach

Grandey (2000) suggested that the construct of emotional labour should be viewed as "the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organization goals" (p.97). Grandey (2000) sought to combine the situational focus of Morris and Feldman (1996) as antecedents of emotional labour, together with the central tenets of surface and deep acting (e.g Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983) as the emotional labour mechanism by which the display rule demands are met (Brown, 2010).

Grandey (2000) appealed to Gross's (1998a; Gross, 1998b) theoretical model of antecedent-focused and response- focused emotion regulation (Brown, 2010). Gross saw emotional management as being regulated at either one of two points. Antecedent-focused regulation entails anticipating and preparing for the emotionally stimulating event prior to exposure. Conversely, response-focused regulation entails the individual suppressing or modifying their emotional response once the stimulus has been received.

Grandey (2000) saw Gross's model as being relevant to emotional labour theory. Particularly as antecedent-focused regulation is conceptually similar to the notion of deep acting (requiring the modification of feelings before exposure), and response-focused regulation is similar to descriptions of surface acting (requiring the modification of expressions at and after exposure) (Brown, 2010). Importantly, Gross (1998a) found that there was a greater sympathetic nervous system activation associated with response focused regulation as opposed to antecedent focused regulation (Brown, 2010). Such sympathetic nervous system responses have well-known associations with adverse health consequences (Gross, 1998a), suggesting that surface acting may be a more damaging emotional labour strategy for employees (Grandey, 2000) (Brown, 2010). Grandey (2000) also saw the emotional labour process as being contingent upon antecedent variables such as the frequency, duration, and variety of interactions (Brown, 2010). As well as antecedent variables, Grandey's (2000) model considers individual and organizational factors as having a direct impact on whether surface or deep acting are utilized as emotional labour strategies. According to Brown (2010) the type of individual factors considered includes gender, emotional intelligence, and the affective tendency of the individual. Organisational factors include sources of social support and the level of job autonomy.

Finally, in line with Gross's (1998a, 1998b) emotional regulation model, Grandey (2000) saw individual outcomes such as burnout and job satisfaction and organisational outcomes such as performance and withdrawal, closely contingent upon surface or deep acting is used as the emotional labour strategy. More stressful individual outcomes for surface acting are expected and Grandey adds to the idea of surface acting is more likely to be detected as insincere by clients, resulting in a less effective performance (Brown, 2010).

Grandey (2004) reorganized the way in which factors were considered (Brown, 2010). For example, instead of job satisfaction being an outcome variable, the level of job satisfaction was viewed as an antecedent and impacted on how much an employee had to act to comply with display rules with those high in job satisfaction being more likely to comply more naturally (Brown, 2010). In keeping with emotional regulation theory (Gross, 1998a, 1998b), surface acting, but not deep acting, had a strong association with emotional exhaustion (Grandey, 2003).

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Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory Approach

According to Hobfoll's (1989) COR theory, when employees expend energy and other personal resources in attempts to comply with the emotional demands of their work, they will seek to replenish these resources, such as through social support (Brown, 2010). The failure to protect and build resources can lead to fatigue, and ultimately, threats to wellbeing, such as burnout (Wilk & Moynihan, 2005). Social support could be accessed from organizational sources such as co-workers or through rewarding interactions and reactions from cliens (Brotheridge and Lee, 2002). Therefore, considering Hochschild's (1983) view that emotional labour is personally taxing, supportive work relations should reduce negative effects (Cheung & Tang, 2007).

Brotheridge and Lee (2002, 2003) viewed emotional labour as being the performance of either surface or deep acting, but inseparable from these strategies are the situational requirements that determine the required effort or resources that need to be expended (Brown, 2010). Brotheridge and Lee (2003) acknowledge the use of natural emotion as a means of complying with display rules in their description of emotional labour, but this is absent as a facet of their emotional labour construct. Brotheridge and Lee (2003) also argued that even if natural emotion is in accordance with display rules, the emotion must still be managed, which adds to how Hochschild (1983) and Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) view natural emotion as a component of emotional labour.

Brotheridge and Lee (2003) consider the frequency, intensity, duration and variety of emotional interactions as part of the overall emotional labour conceptualisation representing demands, and surface and deep acting as the methods used to meet the demands with the management of natural emotion as a suggested but not included facet (Brotheridge and Lee, 2003) (see figure 5).

Figure 5 Sequential model of emotional labour and burnout

Demands---------------------------Emotional effort-- ------------------------------------
Resources
(display rules)   (deep and surface acting)   (rewarding social
relationships)

Self Image   --- Burnout
(authenticity)   (emotional strain, detachment, low
accomplishment)
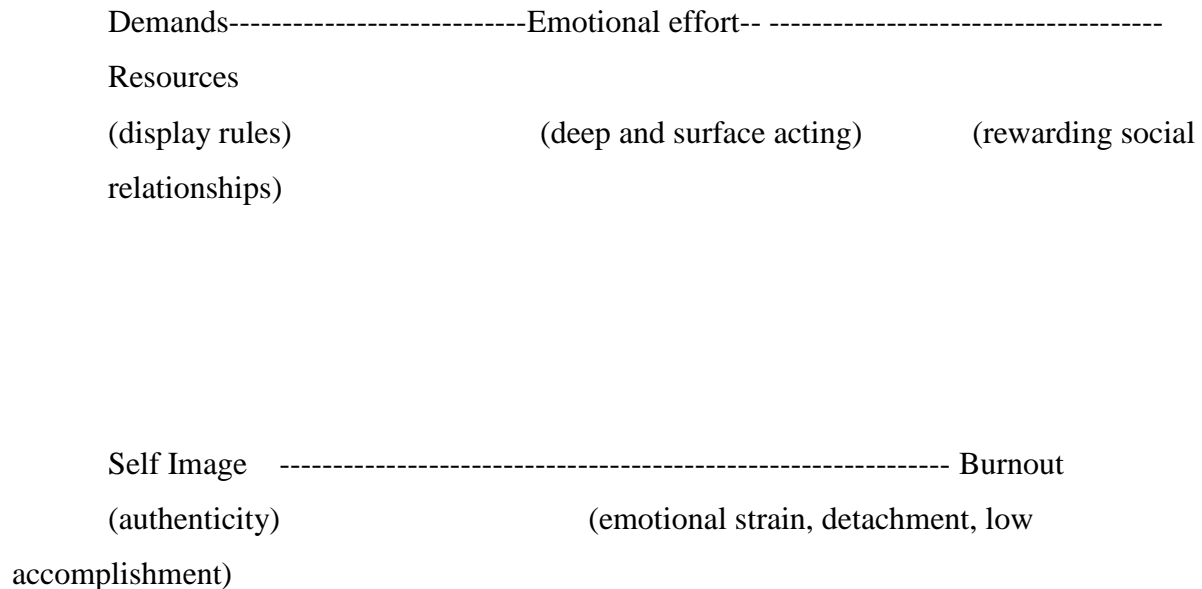
Figure 5. Sequential model of emotional labour and burnout. (Source: Testing a conservation of resources model of the dynamics of emotional labour. By C.M. Brotheridge and Lee (2002) Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 7, p58).

Reference to the COR model does not provide an explanation about how or why specific components of emotional labour are chosen, as is the case in Grandey's use of Gross's (1998a; 1998b) emotional regulation model (Brown, 2010).

Control Theory Approach

Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) explained the emotional labour process in terms of control, in which a four step model is used to explain how individuals constantly monitor, compare and modify behaviour in order to meet certain goals (Brown, 2010). In terms of emotional labour, control theory is adapted to explain that an individual makes a self-perception of his or her emotional display to the display, acts to reduce any discrepancy (by either modifying behaviour to match the display rule, acts to reduce any discrepancy (by either modifying behaviour to match the display rule or, if this is difficult, abandoning the display rule as a standard for behaviour), and displays emotions accordingly (see Figure 5). (Brown, 2010). Diefendorff and Gosserand see this process as automatic and outside

conscious awareness in many situations, but problematic and leading to burnout when substantial efforts are required to meet display rule expectations (Brown, 2010).

In a test of the tripartite dimensionality of emotional labour Diefendorff, Croyle and Gosserand (2005) identified natural emotion as a distinct dimension in addition to surface acting and deep acting (Brown, 2010). Similar to Diefendorff et al. (2005), Naring and van Droffelaar (2007) also considered emotional consonance as an emotional labour strategy but once again this also did not include the active management of natural emotion. Naring and van Droffelaar found that emotional labour consisted of four dimensions; surface acting, deep acting, emotional consonance, and suppression of emotion, which was conceptualized as being separate to the active expression of unfelt emotion in surface acting (Brown, 2010). Other conceptualisations of emotional labour have considered that surface acting consists of both suppression of felt emotion and the expression of unfelt emotion (e.g Hochschild, 1983).

Figure 6: Control Theory Model of Emotional Labour

Comparator -----

Emotion Regulation Strategies

| Disp lay Rule |

Perception of Display------------Emotional Display--------------

Affective Event
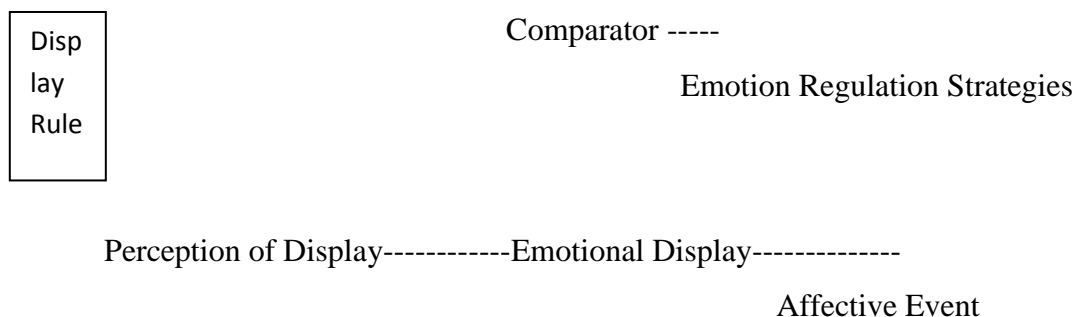
Figure 6. Control Theory Model of Emotional Labour. (Source; Understanding the emotional labour process: A control theory perspective. By J.M. Diefendorff and R.H. Gosserand (2003). Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 24, p948**.**

Diefendorff and Gosserand's (2003) control theory approach allows for the consideration of surface acting, deep acting, and natural emotion as methods of managing emotion (Brown, 2010). In the case of natural emotion, the felt emotion may still need to be managed and kept in check and within the bounds of accepted norms for the situation. For example, a palliative care nurse may feel sorrow following the death of a client, but unrestrained sorrow may not appropriate in front of family members. Therefore as also suggested by Brotheridge and Lee (2003), the

management of natural emotion can be seen as a more inclusive approach to considering how natural emotion may be used to conform to display rules as opposed to simply considering situations in which felt emotion naturally corresponds with what is required (Brown, 2010).

Similar to Grandey's (2000) view, Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) take into account affective events which may alter the level of difficulty in actually displaying the required emotion (Brown, 2010). For example, previous negative interactions with clients who may have been abusive or personal issues such as a sick family member can impact on the ability of the employee to deliver the required emotional expressions and comply with display rules, despite recognising a discrepance between actual and required expressions (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003).

In terms of outcomes, Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) suggest that when the discrepancy between what's required and what is felt is large, much more effort and emotional expenditure is required. This greater effort may eventually result in burnout. In addition, if the employee is unable to conform to display rules and chooses a modified standard for emotional expression, feelings of inadequacy and low job satisfaction may follow (see figure 7).

Figure 7: Diefendorff &Gosserand's (2003) theory of emotional labour.

Display Rules	**Emotional Labour**	**Outcomes**
Mostly organisationally directed	Surface acting	Job performance
	Deep acting	Burnout
	Natural emotion	Feelings of inadequacy
		Job satisfaction

(Figure 7. Model based on Diefendorff &Gosserand's (2003) theory of emotional labour.

Diefendorff et al's (2005) application of control theory to the emotional labour process provides an explanation of how discrepancies between required and displayed emotional expression are constantly monitored and modified if necessary. Control theory considers that affective events may impact on the ability of employees to

match display rule requirements (Brown, 2010). Diefendorffet al. (2005) and Diefendoff & Gosserand (2003) also allow for the idea that the management of natural emotion is an emotional labour strategy in addition to surface and deep acting (Brown, 2010).

Action Theory

Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini and Isic (1999) take an action theory view of the emotional labour process. The core tenet of action theory is that individuals seek to actively engage in their environment, to have some level of control over their condition and are generally not passive respondents to environmental demands (Frese & Zapf, 1994) (Brown, 2010). As applied to emotional labour, action theory components include; regulation requirements (display rules and other antecedents), and regulation problems (stressors that impede meeting regulation requirements). Regulation problems occur when requirements exceed the resources of the individual or if regulation possibilities are limited (Brown, 2010). For example, emotional dissonance is seen as a regulation problem due to a lack of choice (low control) the individual has in meeting display rules (Zapf et al., 1999) (Brown, 2010).

In accordance with action theory, Zapf et al. (1999) conceptualised emotional labour using the following six factors; requirements to display positive emotions, requirements to display negative emotions, variety of emotions, sensitivity requirements (all emotional regulation requirements); interaction control (emotional regulation possibilities); and emotional dissonance (emotional regulation problems) (Brown, 2010).

In a further development Zapf (2002) identified the actual emotion work strategies as automatic emotion regulation (similar to natural emotion), deep acting, surface acting, emotional deviance and sensing emotions. All of these emotions are responses to job requirements to display positive or negative emotions, the level of emotional dissonance and sensitivity requirements (Brown, 2010). In his inclusion of emotional deviance, Zapf referred to the work of Rafael and Sutton (1987) who argued that emotional deviance is the act of displaying emotions which are counter to display rule requirements (Brown, 2010). Zapf argued that emotional deviance is a response to display rules in which an employee either chooses not to comply or is unable to comply due to emotional exhaustion (Brown, 2010). Sensing emotions is

considered by Zapf as an emotional labour strategy used to guide response and shape the behaviour of the client. Zapf sees the main problem for individuals engaged in emotional labour as emotional dissonance and its relationship with burnout and suggests that autonomy and social support represent control mechanisms that may alleviate regulation problems (Brown, 2010). Autonomy may not only be achieved by allowing employees greater latitude in expressing emotions as they see fit, but could also be achieved by providing timeouts from situations in which display rules need to be closely observed or where there are largely negative interactions (see figure 8).

Figure 8: Model of Zapf's theory of emotional labour

Regulation Requirements:	Regulation Possibilities:	Regulation Problems:	Outcomes:
Display Rules Requirement for positive emotions Requirement for negative emotion	**Emotional Labour** Automatic emotion regulation Deep acting Surface acting Emotional deviance Sensing emotion	**Emotional Dissonance** **Moderators** Social support Autonomy	**Burnout** Emotional Exhaustion Depersonalisation Personal accomplishment Job performance

Figure 8: Model based on Zapf et al (1999) and Zapf's (2002) theory of emotional labour.

Figure 9: Ashforth and Humphrey's Emotional Labour Theory

Display Rules Influences	**Emotional Labour**	**Wellbeing Outcomes**
Organisational	Surface Acting	Task Effectiveness
Societal	Deep acting	Alienation
Occupational	Genuine emotion	Self-Esteem

Moderators

Social and personal identity

Emotional autonomy
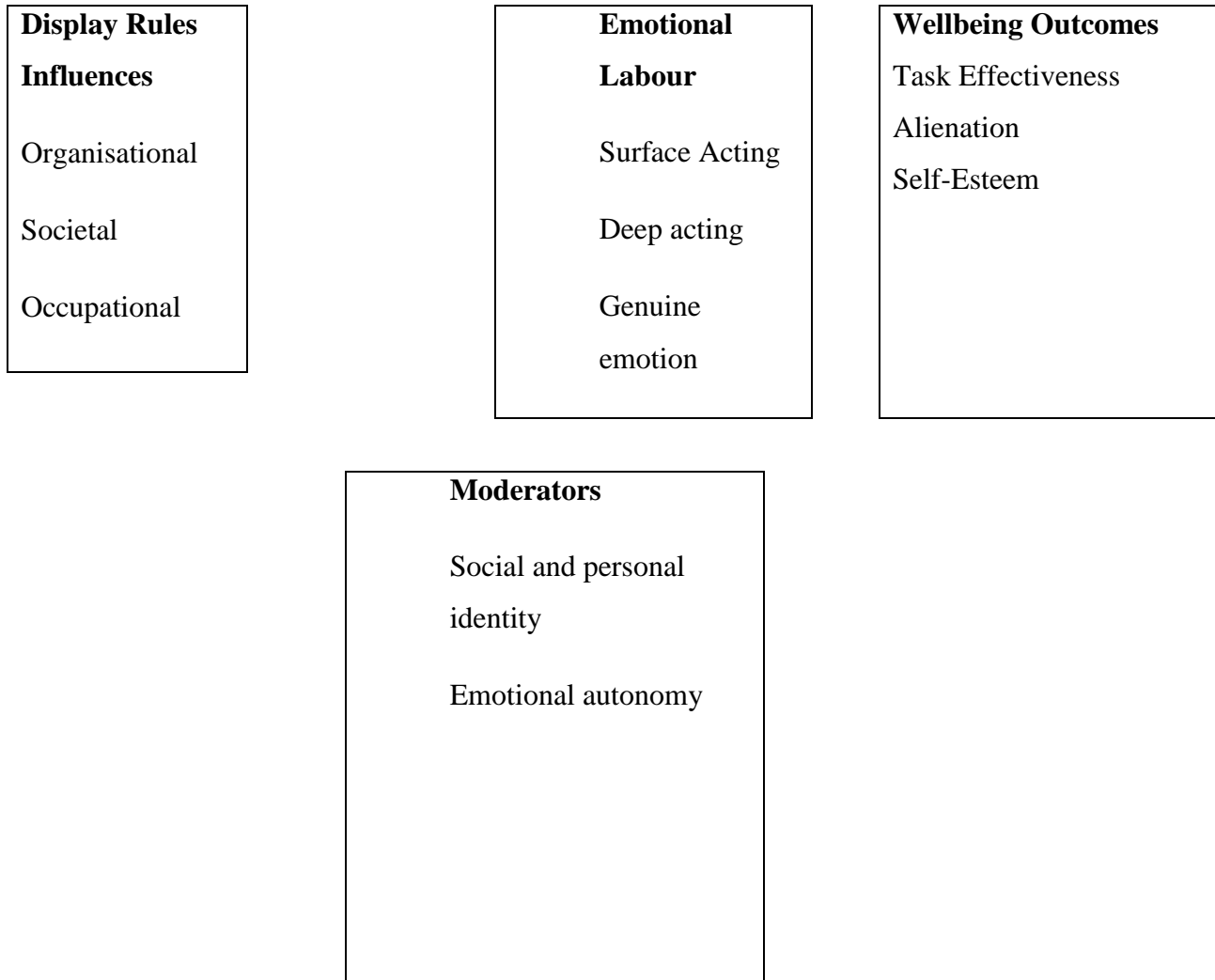
Figure 9: Model based on Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) theory of emotional labour (Brown, 2010)

unwiedly

PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

Psychological Capital (PsyCap) evolved from Positive Organizational Behaviour (POB) and POB has its roots in positive psychology (Sridevi and Srinivasan, 2012). Positive psychology is concerned with concentrating on people's strengths rather than on their weaknesses (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Snyder and Lopez, 2002). Applying the same logic Luthans (2002a, 2002b) came up with POB.

Luthans (2002a) defines POB as "the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace". Positive psychological constructs that best meets the POB criteria are hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy. To be included as part of POB, the following criteria must be met: 1. Positive, strengths based, relatively unique to the field of organizational behaviour; 2. Theory and research-based with valid measures; 3. State-like and open to development and performance management (Jensen, 2012).

PsyCap can be defined as, " an individual's positive psychological state of development characterised by: 1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; 2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; 3)persevering toward goals, and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and 4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success" (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007, p3).

Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa & Li (2005) succinctly note that psychological capital is defined

" as a core psychological factor of positivity in general, and POB criteria meeting states in particular, that go beyond human and social capital to gain a competitive advantage through investment/development of " who you are" , Luthans, Luthans and Luthans 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

Confidence

Stajkovic and Luthans (1998b) define confidence (or self-efficacy) as the " individual's conviction about his abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task with in a given context". (Bandura, 1997) and other researchers have clearly shown through research and subsequent application in the workplace how confidence can be developed.

Hope

According to Luthans etal., (2004), hope is not as widely researched as the other three constructs of PsyCap. Snyder etal., (1991) define hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an "interactively derived sense of successful a) agency (goal-oriented energy); b) pathways (planning to meet goals)".

Optimism

Seligman's (2002) definition draws from attribution theory in term of two crucial dimensions of one's explanatory style of good and bad events; permanence and pervasiveness. Specifically optimists interpret bad events as being only temporary while pessimists interpret bad events as being permanent and the opposite is true for good events.

Resilience

Resilience has received scant attention in organizational behaviour and HRM research. Resilience theory and research is largely drawn from clinical psychology's work with adolescent children that have succeeded despite great adversity (Masten, 2001; and Masten & Reed, 2002). Resilience is often characterized by positive coping and adaptation in the face of significant adversity or risk (Masten & Reed, 2002). As adapted to the workplace resiliency has been defined as the " positive psychological capacity to rebound, to 'bounce back' from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure or even positive change, progress and increased responsibility" (Luthans, 2002a, p702). Resilience can therefore be characterised by coping responses to both adverse events and extreme positive events.

Research on PsyCap constructs.

Confidence

Bandura (1997) and other researchers have clearly shown through research and subsequent application in the workplace how confidence can be developed.

Self-efficacy

Lazarus and Bandura (2007) agree that most human stress is governed by beliefs about our coping efficacy. For example Matsui & Oglacto (1992) found perceptions of work overload to be impacted by perceived self-efficacy, with those women possessing a lower sense of efficacy to be more stressed by heavy work demands and responsibilities. Links between self-efficacy and workplace stress have also been demonstrated in recent studies including workers in Hong Kong and Beijing (Siu etal., 2005) and female enterpreneurs (Hanzel, 1996), (Jensen, 2012).

Resilience

Research on resilience has been limited to clinical and positive psychology (Luthans, etal., in press). Research indicates that resilient individuals are likely better equipped to deal with the stressors in a constantly changing workplace environment, as they are open to new experiences, flexible to changing demands and show more emotional stability when faced with adversity, (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Caverley (2005) found that resilient employees exhibited low burnout and absenteeism rates (Sridevi & Srinivasan, 2012).

Research on the effect of PsyCap on stress is very few. Avey, Luthans and Jensen (2009) found that those low in PsyCap are more prone to perception of stress symptoms leading to intentions to quit and job search behaviour. In a study by Roberts, Scherer and Bowyer (2011), it was found that PsyCap lessened the effect of job stress on uncivil behaviours.

Moderating effect of PsyCap on Emotional Labour and Burnout

When compared with other professional groups, nurses have been singled out as one of the professional groups with the highest scores of stress. (Coffey & Coleman, 2001; Oginska-Bulik, 2005; Rees & Smith, 1991) cite the following as the causes of stress in nurses: organizational and administration concerns, client relationship, heavy workload, interpersonal discord and professional doubt (Brown 2007). The management of emotions through the recognition, control and adequate expression of emotion are considered to be at the heart of healthcare professionals. Best practice emotional behaviours that are expected to be displayed at work include a genuine caring disposition, expressing empathy for patients and their loved ones and showing an understanding for patients in pain (Molter, 2001). The nature of interaction between nurses and patients and the patients' loved ones; airhostesses and teachers often involves Emotional Labour (Lee and Ashworth, 1996). Therefore it can be generalised that if the emotional expressions that are required to be expressed by nurses when interacting with patients are not 'first nature' to the nurse or leads to overwhelming emotions which the nurse might not be able to control then there is risk of burnout, psychosomatic illnesses, increased absenteeism, drug and alcohol abuse, withdrawal and depression (Perrewe and Gangster, 2002). According to Palmer and

Stough (2001) emotional recognition and expression refers to the ability to identify one's own feelings and emotional states and the ability to express those inner feelings.

Multiple studies have confirmed the value of PsyCap within the workplace. According to Gorgens-Ekermans & Herbert (2013), research has shown that PSyCap to consistently correlate negatively with burnout (Cheung, Tang & Tang, 2011; Laschinger & Grau, 2012; Wang, Chang, Fu &Wang, 2012). Moreover PsyCap has been shown to be a moderator in the emotional labour-burnout relationship (Cheung etal., 2011).
Avey, Reichard, Luthans and Mhatre (2011), hold that PsyCap has a synergistic effect due to the fact that it incorporates the coping mechanisms that the four individual sub-dimensions have in common. Hence PsyCap has been shown to be related to hedonic and eudaimonic wellbeing (Culbertson etal., 2010) in (Gorgens-Ekermans & Herbert, 2013). In addition PsyCap has been shown to be a predictor of employee psychological well-being over time (Avey, Luthans, Smith and Palmer, 2010).

In this study, it was therefore argued that PsyCap may have the ability to increase coping resources; this should buffer experienced stress as well as lessen the development of work-related burnout from stress, due to the health enhancing capabilities of and coping mechanism embodied by PsyCap.

According to Gorgens-Ekermans &Herbert (2013), it is well documented that some individuals regardless of high job demands and long working hours do not develop burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2001). These individuals enjoy working hard and derive joy from meeting job demands. According to Seligman & Czikszentmihayhi (2000), from a positive psychology perspective, such individuals could be described as engaged in their work.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The quantitative research method was employed for this study because it is conclusive in its purpose as it tries to quantify the problem and understand how prevalent it is by looking for projectable results to a larger population.

The correlation survey design was used for the present study. Correlational studies are used to look for relationships between variables. There are three possible results of a correlational study: a positive correlation, a negative correlation, and no correlation. The correlation coefficient is a measure of correlation strength and can range from −1.00 to +1.00.

3.2 Participants

Study sample was n=72 consisting of nurses from two major hospitals in Chitungwiza. Only permanent nursing staff from these two hospitals: South Medical Private and Chitungwiza General Hospital participated in the study. Their ages ranged from 22 to 62 years.

Table 1: Age of Respondents

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age of respondent	69	22.00	62.00	34.5942	8.69976
Valid N (listwise)	69				

As shown in the table 2 below, of the 241, of the 72 nurses who completed and returned the questionnaires, 15 were male and 57 were female.

Table 2

Sex of respondent

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	57	79.2	79.2	79.2
	Male	15	20.8	20.8	100.0
	Total	72	100.0	100.0	

The representation of the respective wards is as shown in the table below, with a greatest number from the Maternity ward.

Table 3

Department/Ward

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Casualty	10	13.9	13.9	13.9
	Paedatric ward	8	11.1	11.1	25.0

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Medical	8	11.1	11.1	36.1
ICU	9	12.5	12.5	48.6
Renal Unit	3	4.2	4.2	52.8
Surgical	2	2.8	2.8	55.6
Maternity	18	25.0	25.0	80.6
Female Ward	2	2.8	2.8	83.3
Annexe	2	2.8	2.8	86.1
Observational ward	3	4.2	4.2	90.3
Hospital Nursing Services	1	1.4	1.4	91.7
Theatre	6	8.3	8.3	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

3.3 Procedure

Permission was sought and granted from the CEO'S office at Chitungwiza Hospital and the Hospital Manager at South Medical Private Hospital. Participants were encouraged to join the survey on a willing basis. The nurses were given 4 questionnaires to complete. The first was for collecting demographic information, the second was Brotheridge and Lee's (1998) Emotional Labour Scale; the third was the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the fourth and last was the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (Luthans etal., 2007) PsyCap24. The initial number of distributed questionnaires was 241 but the completed questionnaires that were returned were 72.

3.4 Measures

Emotional Labour was measured using Brotheridge and Lee's (1998) Emotional Labour Scale on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1=never to 5=always with a reliability of $\alpha=.82$ in the study. The original reliability of $\alpha=90$ (Johnson, 2004). Burnout was measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory on a 7 point likert scale ranging from 0= never to 6= Very Strong with a reliability of $\alpha=.88$ in this study. The original reliability of the instrument is $\alpha=.89$

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(Philip, 2004). Psychological Capital was measured by the PCQ24 Psychological Capital Questionnaire (Luthans etal., 2007) with a reliability of α=.88 on a 6 point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 6=Strongly agree. The original reliability of the instrument is α= .88-89 from the four studies that were conducted by Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman (2007).

3.5 Data Analysis

The survey instrument data was analysed quantitatively using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17.

Analyses were performed to test the hypotheses from Pearson correlations to multiple regression analyses.

Pearson correlation analysis was used to test relationship between Emotional Labour and Burnout. The relationships among the variables hypothesized and the moderator effects were tested using stepwise multiple regression analysis.

With a sample of n=72 factor analysis of an exploratory nature was done for emotional labour and burnout to establish whether the dimensions emerge as theorised.

As in table 4 below, the Bartlett's Sphericity Test showed significant results, its associated probability is less than 0.05. In fact, it is actually 0.032, meaning that the significance level is small enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 4

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.500
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4.616
	df	1
	Sig.	.032

Analysis was performed to test the hypotheses from Pearson correlations to step wise multiple regression analyses.

Pearson correlation analysis was used to test relationship between burnout and emotional labour and the results were as the in the table 5 below:

Table 5: Bivariate correlation of Emotional Labour, Burnout

Correlations

		EmotionalLabour	Burnout	PsychologicalCapital
EmotionalLabour	Pearson Correlation	1	.387*	.052
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.016	.379
	N	51	31	37
Burnout	Pearson Correlation	.387*	1	-.297
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.016		.059
	N	31	37	29
PsychologicalCapital	Pearson Correlation	.052	-.297	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.379	.059	
	N	37	29	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

There was a significant relationship between Emotional Labour and Burnout. The correlation analysis was (r=1, p>.05, one tailed).

The moderating role of Psychological Capital on Emotional Labour and Burnout was analyzed using stepwise multiple regression. In step 1 demographics were entered and they explained 18.9% of the variance in burnout. (R^2=0.189, p=0.038<0.05). There is a weak positive correlation relationship.

In step 2 Emotional Labour was entered and they explained for 58.9% of the variance in burnout (r^2=0.589, p=0.063<0.05)

In step 3 Psychological Capital was entered and they explained for 41.5% of the variance in burnout where ($r2=0.445$, $p=0.445>0.05$). We fail to reject the null hypothesis since the rejection criteria is that if the p value is less than 0.05 we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there from this data set there is no significant relationship between burnout and Psychological Capital.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS

Hypotheses 1: A significant positive relationship will exist between Emotional Labour and Burnout

The hypotheses was supported by the correlation analysis where ($r=1$, $p>.05$, one tailed.

Those nurses who used Deep acting as a strategy had higher levels of burnout than those who employed Surface acting.

Hypotheses 2**:** Psycap will moderate the relationship between EL and burnout such that those nurses high in psycap will experience less burnout.

There was a weak negative correlation relationship between PsyCap, Burnout and Emotional Labour.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 Discussion

The focus from the onset this research centred on the moderating role of psychological capital on the emotional labour and burnout relationship. The results revealed that there is a weak negative correlation relationship between psychological capital and emotional labour and burnout.

This suggests that there are other variables which were not part of the study which might influence the extent to which Psychological Capital moderates the emotional labour and burnout relationship. For example amongst the demographic variables that had statistical significance was length of tenure which explained 18.1%. Indicating that there were other demographic variables that were not part of the study that accounted for 81.1% of the variance. In this case, for example marital status had not been included in this study amongst the demographic information collected. Cheung etal, (2001)'s study included job satisfaction as a factor under study addition to examining the relationship between psychological capital, emotional labour and burnout, where results showed that teachers in China were recruited. Results showed that PsyCap was related to emotional labor, burnout, and job satisfaction in the hypothesized direction. Furthermore, PsyCap moderated the association between emotional labor and the outcome variables.

5.2 Limitations of the study

Use of self-ratings instead of 360 degree rating might have been a factor that influenced the results of this study.

Schmidt and Hunter (2010) argue that an individual study could reveal statistically non-significant results due to small sample size. Thus reliance on statistical power has its own limitations.

5.3 Suggestions for further research

Future research should also look at the possibility of other variables such as job satisfaction inclusive of conditions of service.

As identified by Cardona and Espejo (2002) the rating source may play a moderating role thus altering rating sources such as peer and self-ratings may need consideration in future research.

5.4 Practical Implications

There is growing evidence of the potential positive effect Psychological Capital has on both individuals and the organisations they work for. In Zimbabwe it might behove the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare to consider incorporating the Psychological Capital development training in its Continuous Medical Education programmes for and maybe in Nurse training curriculum.

5.5 Conclusion

In summation this study examines how the relationship between emotional labour and burnout was moderated by psychological capital. Results indicate a positive relationship between emotional labour and burnout and a weak negative correlation relationship of psychological capital as a moderator of the emotional labour burnout relationship. The study provides a promising suggestion that builds towards organisational development through positive psychology. Continuing research is still needed to further the theoretical understanding and utility of psychological capital as a construct that can be used amongst nurses.

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Psychological Capital Questionnaire (Luthans etal., 2007)

Participant No.: _____ Date: _____

Instructions: Below are statements that describe how you may think about yourself **right now**. Use the following scale to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement

Strongly Disagree Agree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly
1	2	3	4	5	6

Self-Efficacy

1. I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution.   1   2   3   4   5   6

2. I feel confident in representing my performance in meetings with seniors.   1   2   3   4   5   6

3. I feel confident contributing to discussions about my work.   1   2   3   4   5   6

4. I feel confident having to set goals/targets for myself.   1   2   3   4   5   6

5. I feel confident contacting people to discuss problems at work.   1   2   3   4   5   6

6. I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.   1   2   3   4   5   6

Hope

1. If I should find myself in a jam, I can think of many ways to get out of it.   1   2   3   4   5   6

2. At the present time I am energetically pursuing my career goals.   1   2   3   4   5   6

3. There are lots of ways around problems in nursing.   1   2   3   4   5   6

4. Right now I see myself as pretty successful as a nurse.   1   2   3   4   5   6

5. I can think of many ways to reach my current career goals.   1   2   3   4   5   6

6. At this time I am meeting the work goals I have set for myself.   1   2   3   4   5   6

Resilience

1. When I have setback in my work I have trouble recovering from it.   1   2   3   4   5   6

2. I usually manage difficulties in my work in one way or the other.   1   2   3   4   5   6

3. I can be "on my own" so to speak at work if I have to.   1   2   3   4   5   6

4. I usually take on stressful things at work in stride.   1   2   3   4   5   6

5. I can get through difficult times in my work because I have experienced   1   2   3   4   5   6

   Difficulty before.

6. I feel I can handle many things at a time in my work as a nurse   1   2   3   4   5   6

Optimism

1. When things are uncertain for me at work I usually expect the best.   1   2   3   4   5   6

2. If something can go wrong for me work-wise it will.   1   2   3   4   5   6

3. I always look on the Brightside of things regarding my work.   1   2   3   4   5   6

4. I am optimistic about what will happen to me, in the future as it   1   2   3   4   5   6

   Pertains to me in my work

5. At work things work out the way I want them to.   1   2   3   4   5   6

6. I approach my work as if 'every cloud has a silver lining'.   1   2   3   4   5   6

Emotional Labor Scale (Brotheridge & Lee,1998)

On a typical day I have _____ customers.

A typical interaction I have with a customer takes about _____ minutes.

	ON AN AVERAGE DAY AT WORK, HOW FREQUENTLY DO YOU DO EACH OF THE FOLLOWING WHEN INTERACTING WITH CUSTOMERS? PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1.	*Frequency* Interact with customers					
2.	Adopt certain emotions as part of your job					
3.	Express particular emotions needed for your job					
4.	*Intensity* Express intense emotion					
5.	Show some strong emotions					
6.	*Variety* Display many different kinds of emotions					
7.	Express many different emotions					
8.	Display many different emotions when interacting with others					
9.	*Deep Acting* Make the effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to others.					
10.	Try to actually experience the emotions that I show.					
11.	Really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job.					
12.	*Surface Acting* Resist expressing my true emotions					
13.	Pretend to have emotions that I don't have					
14.	Hide my true feelings about a situation					

APPENDIX C

Demographic Information

Female _____ Male _____

Black _____ White _____ Asian _____ Other _____

Age in years: _____

How long have you worked for this company (in months)? _____

Current Job title: _____

Department/Ward: _____

Professional Qualifications (e.g diploma in General Nursing)

1.

2.

3.

4.

Academic Qualifications (e.g O levels- 5 passes)

1.

2.

3.

4.

APPENDIX D

Step wise Multiple Regression ANOVA table

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2507.173	1	2507.173	4.900	.038[b]
	Residual	10745.696	21	511.700		
	Total	13252.870	22			
2	Regression	7809.483	8	976.185	2.511	.063[c]
	Residual	5443.387	14	388.813		
	Total	13252.870	22			

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

b. Predictors: (Constant), EmotionalLabour

c. Predictors: (Constant), EmotionalLabour, Sex of respondent, Professional Qualification,

Department/Ward, How long have you worked for this company (in months), Academic

qualification, Age of respondent, Current job title

APPENDIX E MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY